



RESEARCH PAPER

Verbal Gender Agreement in English and Haryanvi: A Comparative Morphosyntactic Study

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ABSTRACT

The study aims to evaluate verbal gender agreements in Pakistani English and Haryanvi languages through morphosyntactic analyses to determine how these two typologically distinct languages encode or resist the gender assignment system in verbal patterns. Gender plays a vital role in defining agreement structures within morphological and syntactic patterns. English determines less gender agreement through verbs, whereas Haryanvi have an overt and systematic system in which verbs form clearly modulate according to the gender of the subject or object. The study is descriptive and Corbett's Gender Assignment System 2006 used as theoretical framework. The findings show that English verbs are not marked for gender and remain the same for masculine, feminine, or non-binary subjects, while Haryanvi verbs change form according to the subject's gender, with endings like -a: for masculine and -i: for feminine. Future researchers can expand this study by examining additional Indo-Aryan varieties and using corpus-based, experimental, and sociolinguistic approaches to gain a deeper understanding of verbal gender agreement.

Keywords: Verbal Gender Agreement, English, Haryanvi, Gender Agreement, Corbett's Gender System, Typological Comparison

Introduction

Gender is simultaneously an endless, fascinating, and bewildering category. It has a clear link with the real world. Gender has different meanings in different fields of study; for example, it is used to mention the sex in biology and a grammatical category in linguistics and grammar (Stockton, 2021; Corbett, 2006). Gender system shows variation with regard to the range of gender assignment across the world's languages (Aikhenvald, 2019). It is an essential part of many languages yet absent in others, as it exists in Indo-European and Dravidian languages, whereas it is absent in Uralic languages (Stockton, 2021; Corbett, 2006).

The genderless languages are natural and have a simple gender allocation system. They do not have a morphological agreement between nouns and associated verb, pronouns, adjectives and articles; whereas, grammatical gender is a particular form of the noun that integrates with other aspects of language (verbs, pronouns, articles or adjectives) and forms gender agreement system (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025). Gender orientation varies across the world's languages, as some languages are based on only two types of gender: masculine and feminine (animate, inanimate/common, neuter). Some languages have three categories of gender, such as masculine, feminine, and neutral, while others have more than four, like masculine, feminine, animates/countable, inanimate/uncountable, and abstracts/fluids (Johannessen, 2025; Raikhan et al., 2025). Gender studies have always been getting the attention of linguists. The core issue to investigate at the heart of gender studies is whether gender

allocation to the noun is rule-governed or it is a random assignment (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025).

In various languages, the gender allocation system is guided by a certain set of rules. The basic step is to investigate those rules that govern the gender allocation system (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025; Johannessen, 2025). Most of the World's languages use two types of criteria for gender allocation to the noun: semantic system and formal system (Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025; Raikhan et al., 2025). In a semantic system, gender is defined through meanings, while in a formal system, the forms of nouns allocate gender (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025).

The word gender is derived from the Latin word *genus* main 'or 'kind'. The languages, which have a gender system, may be central, forming an essential part of the lexical, syntactic, and morphological structure, like in German, or they may be more peripheral, as in the English language (Corbett, 2006; Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025). Vanhove (2012) quotes surveys regarding the gender system from 256 languages all over the world that 144 (56%) languages are genderless, while 112 (44%) languages are grammatical gender (p. 79). Genderless languages are natural or constructed languages that have no specific distinctions regarding grammatical gender, meaning no morphological agreement between nouns and related verbs, adjectives, pronouns, and articles (Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025; Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024). Various languages are genderless, for instance, Indo-European languages (Persian, Central Kurdish, and Bengali), Uralic languages (Finnish, Hungarian, and Estonian), all Modern Turkic languages, Austronesian languages, Vietnamese, Korean, Japanese, and Chinese (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025; Johannessen, 2025).

English is a West Germanic language, spoken in medieval England, and gradually developed over more than 1,400 years (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025). As regards the gender assignment system of the English language, Curzan (2003) mentions that grammatical gender loss is the most difficult aspect of English philology (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025). Modern English has a natural gender system (masculine, feminine, and neuter). On the other hand, some languages have only two criteria of gender: masculine and feminine. Haryanvi language is one of those that has two kinds of gender criteria (Johannessen, 2025; Raikhan et al., 2025).

Haryanvi is an Indo-Aryan language, spoken by the various communities that migrated from the Haryana State of India at the time of the Indo-Pak Partition in 1947. Most of the Haryanvi speakers settled in different villages of Punjab, Sindh, and all over Pakistan. A large community of Arain, Rajput, and Jut speaks the Haryanvi language as the 'Mother Tongue'. In Pakistan, the Haryanvi language is also known as Rangari in Rajput communities (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024).

Haryanvi Language in the Present Scenario

Although a large number of Haryanvi speakers live in Pakistan and use this language as their 'Mother tongue' there is no official recognition of the Haryanvi language in the list of Pakistani languages. Aslam (2015) quoted that more than one hundred thousand Haryanvi speakers live in Pakistan, whereas Mustafa (2020) described that the actual number of Rangri (Haryanvi) speakers may be well beyond half a million in Pakistan. Unfortunately, its name is not mentioned in the languages of Pakistan. However, the Arain community is playing its role in the promotion of the Haryanvi language in Pakistan. An organization was established under the name of 'Ambal Arain Family, by Mehmood Hassan, which is based on those Haryanvi speakers who migrated from the Ambala district, State Haryana, India, and now live all over Pakistan and still speak the Haryanvi language as their first language (L1) and second language (L2). It has organized an annual family reunion in November since 2007 and the function is conducted in the Ambalvi dialect of Haryanvi.

Ambala Arain family tree was created to save our heritage and manage the data of five generations, more than 60 thousand family members.

People speak multiple languages all over the world, and sometimes face difficulties in assigning gender due to their different gender allocation system such as English language has limited gender agreement in verbs, whereas Haryanvi language systematically encodes gender through verbal morphology. Although, gender occupies an important position in morphosyntactic theory, there is a notable gap regarding the direct comparison of the verbal gender agreement system within typological divers' languages like Pakistani English and Haryanvi. Most of the existing English studies focus on historical loss of grammatical gender and the emergence of a natural gender assignment system, and research regarding Haryanvi language remains largely descriptive in nature and pays less attention to systematic morphosyntactic analysis of verbal agreement. This existing gap raises the questions that how verbs encode gender in various languages and what type of rules govern these verbal morphosyntactic agreement patterns. Sufficient understanding regarding these differences is necessary for second language learning, theoretical linguistics, translation, and regional languages documentation. However, this study aims to examine and compare the verbal gender agreement system of Pakistani English and Haryanvi to highlights the mechanism of morphosyntactic and typological contrast.

Literature Review

Grammatical gender and its expression through verbal morphology have long been central topics in linguistic theory and typology. Gender is a grammatical category that interacts with agreement patterns across nouns, pronouns, verbs, and adjectives (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024). Traditional gender systems vary widely among languages: some exhibit extensive gender-agreement paradigms while others make minimal gender distinctions or lack grammatical gender entirely (Raikhan et al., 2025). This typological diversity invites comparative analysis, particularly in examining how gender is encoded morphosyntactically in languages with vastly different structural profiles, such as English and Haryanvi.

Gender Systems in World Languages

Gender is a complex term and one of the basic components of language. Its presence varies in the world's languages. It exists in many languages while absent in others. Vanhove (2012) has talked about surveys regarding gender systems from 256 languages all over the world, showing that 144 (56%) of languages are genderless while 112 (44%) of languages are grammatical gender (p. 79). Suleiman (2013) has mentioned that genderless languages are natural or constructed languages, which have no specific distinctions regarding grammatical gender. There is no morphological agreement among nouns, verbs, pronouns, articles, and adjectives. The Indo-European languages like Persian, Bengali, and Central Kurdish, all the Austronesian languages as well as Vietnams, all Uralic languages such as Hungarian, Estonian, and Finnish, and all the Modern Turkic languages, Japanese, Chinese, and Korean are genderless (Aikhenvald, 2019; Raikhan et al., 2025). There is a great deal of variation in the gender systems of languages around the world. Some languages have a simple two-gender system, while others have multiple genders or no gender at all. Here are some examples of gender systems in different languages as the two-gender system is the most common type of gender system, found in many Indo-European languages such as English, Spanish, French, and German (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024). Typically, the two genders are masculine and feminine. The three-gender system is found in some languages such as Russian, Hindi, and Swahili (Johannessen, 2025). The three genders are usually masculine, feminine, and neuter. Whereas the four-gender system is found in some Bantu languages such as Zulu and Xhosa (Aikhenvald, 2019). The four genders are usually human male, human female, non-human animate, and inanimate. Five-gender system is found in some Native American languages, such as Navajo and Cherokee (Aikhenvald, 2019). The five genders are usually masculine animate, feminine animate, masculine inanimate, feminine

inanimate, and abstract. On the other hand, no gender system exists in some languages, such as Turkish, Finnish, and Hungarian, which do not have grammatical gender at all (Raikhan et al., 2025).

Gender and Verbal Morphology

A key locus of gender agreement is verbal morphology. In some languages, gender features extend to verbs, impacting how verbs inflect with respect to subject or object gender (Johannessen, 2025). Verbal gender agreement is particularly salient in languages with richer morphological inflection systems, where verbs encode multiple categories such as gender, number, and person. Conversely, languages with minimal verbal inflection, including many analytic languages, show limited or no gender agreement on verbs, though gender distinctions may appear in pronouns and nominal forms.

Morphology as a field of study has been getting considerable attention of late. Several studies have been carried out on the morphology of Indo-Aryan languages (Kar, 2009; Ramasamy, 2011). Mangrio (2016) has worked on the morphology of loan words in Urdu; Iqbal (2016) and Muhabat (2016) have worked on the morphology of Punjabi nouns; Strnad (2013) on Old Hindi and Ramasamy (2011) on the Tamil language. However, Haryanvi, despite being a relatively large language has not received any scholarly attention except a very elementary survey by the author Aslam (2015), that too under the name of Haryanvi. On the other hand, Mustafa (2020) has worked on the Morphology of Rangri (Haryanvi) and analyzed content words under word-and- Paradigm theory. This paucity of research has forced the researcher to analyze the morphology of gender Assignment in Haryanvi. However, being the native speaker of the Haryanvi, the researcher has decided to work on the Ambalvi dialect of Haryanvi and find out the type of gender assignment system that exists in English and Haryanvi (Ambalvi dialect) by applying Corbett's (2006) Gender Assignment System and focused on semantic and formal criteria of the gender allocation to the noun as well as gender agreements.

Gender in English

English is a West Germanic language. It was spoken in early medieval England, and now it has become a lingua franca. It has gradually developed for more than 1,400 years (Denison & Hogg, 2023; McIntyre, 2021). As regards the gender assignment system of the English language, Curzan and Adams (2021) mention that the loss of grammatical gender in later English is one of the most difficult problems of English philology. The history of the gender system may be divided into three periods; this division may be to some extent arbitrary. Nevalainen (2022) has distinguished these periods:

- Old English: from the 5th to the 12th century
- Middle English: from the 12th to the 16th century
- Modern English: from the 16th century to onwards.

Curzan (2021) has defined that the English gender system transformed from a morphological gender assignment system to a semantic one in the past millennium. In the history of the English language, the most defining period in the evolution of the modern language is the shift from Old English to Middle English. There are two important factors behind the sweeping nature of the linguistic changes from Old to Middle English. She has mentioned,

The discontinuity of the written record, which telescopes a series of changes undoubtedly occurring over several centuries into about 200 years, and the shift from a fairly consistent and fairly conservative literary version of the surviving West Saxon dialect in Old English to a wider variety of recorded Middle English dialects (p. 31).

In addition, she has stated that the linguistic transition from Old to Middle English appears during the first two centuries of Norman rule and is categorized into three basic developments: 'less conspicuous morphological and syntactic changes, as well as significant phonological changes' (Curzan & Adams, 2021, p. 31).

Overall, English historically possessed grammatical gender but lost robust gender marking over its evolution, resulting in a system where gender is primarily realized through natural gender pronouns rather than verb morphology (Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025). In modern English, verbal forms remain invariant with respect to gender: the verb *run* appears identically whether the subject is masculine, feminine, or non-binary. This absence of verbal gender marking reflects a broader trend toward syntactic neutrality and semantic interpretation over morphological agreement in gender (Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025; Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024). Consequently, English provides a clear case of a language where gender does not influence the verbal agreement system.

Gender in Haryanvi

Haryanvi is an Indo-Aryan language and is spoken in Pakistan by the communities that migrated from the Haryana State of India at the time of the Indo-Pak Partition in 1947 (Rahman, 2021). At the time of Partition, a large number of Haryanvi speakers migrated from Haryana and Delhi in India to Pakistan in 1947 (Ahmed, 2022). Most of the Haryanvi speakers settled in different villages of Punjab, Sindh, and throughout Pakistan. A large community of Arain, Rajput, Teli, and Jutt speaks the Haryanvi language as their 'Mother Tongue', who have migrated from Haryana state (Rahman, 2021). In Pakistan, the Haryanvi language is also known as Rangari in Rajput communities (Mustafa, 2020). After the independence of Pakistan, most of the Haryanvi Speakers settled down mainly in Lahore, Sheikhpura, Gujranwala, Sialkot, Hafizabad, Okara, Sahiwal, Khanewal, Lodhran, Vehari, Multan, Bhakar, Bahawalnagar, Rahim Yar Khan, Layha, and Sargodha districts of Punjab, as well as in Mirpur Khas, Nawabshah, Sanghar, Ghotki, and Hyderabad Districts of Sindh (Ahmed, 2022). Currently, three major dialects of Haryanvi are spoken by the Arain, Rajput, and Jat communities in Pakistan, who migrated from the Haryana State. The names of the Haryanvi language are still based on the names of the geographical regions of Haryana State from where those speakers have migrated, such as Ambalvi, Rohtaki, and Karnalvi dialects. The Ambalvi dialect is spoken in the central districts of Pakistani Punjab, which include Gujranwala, Sheikhpura, Hafizabad, Sialkot, and Sargodha. The Rohtaki dialect is mainly spoken in the Southern districts of Pakistani Punjab, which include Mianwali, Muzaffargarh, Khanewal, and Multan. Whereas, the Karnalvi dialect is spoken mainly in the rural region of Sindh, mainly in Sanghar, Nawabshah, and Mirpur Khas (Mustafa, 2020).

Haryanvi offers a contrasting profile, while undescribed relative to major languages, Haryanvi displays systematic gender agreement in verbal morphology. In particular, participial and perfective constructions in Haryanvi require verb forms to match the gender of the subject or agent, often marked through gender-specific suffixes such as *-a:* for masculine and *-i:* for feminine gender forms (Fatemi, M., Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025; Johannessen, 2025). This systematic marking indicates a richer morphosyntactic gender agreement system than is found in English, aligning Haryanvi with other Indo-Aryan languages where verbal gender agreement remains robust.

Typology and Cross-Linguistic Perspectives

Cross-linguistic research emphasize that the gender assignment system could be more understood in typological framework. Languages which have border morphological inflection typically spared gender assignment patterns across various categories such as nouns, adjectives, and verbs whereas analytic languages restrict gender allocation to certain domain (Raikhan et al., 2025). Cognitive research also suggests that the presence or absence of gender marking influences processing during language comprehension, highlighting

deeper interactions between morphosyntactic features and cognitive mechanisms (Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025). Such findings support the view that verbal gender agreement systems are not uniform but reflect distinct linguistic architectures shaped by historical, structural, and cognitive factors.

The review of literature indicates that gender agreement has been widely studied across diverse languages, including Indo-Aryan, Germanic, and other typologically distinct languages (Corbett, 2006; Sá-Leite & Lago, 2024; Fatemi, Mertins, & Schroeder, 2025). Research on English shows that the language has largely lost morphological gender marking, relying instead on natural gender distinctions expressed through pronouns and lexical choices (Curzan, 2003; Nevalainen, 2022). In contrast, studies on Indo-Aryan languages highlight that verbs serve as important sites of gender marking, with systematic agreement visible across different tenses and aspects (Mustafa, 2020; Fuchs & Sekerina, 2025). However, Haryanvi, despite its historical and typological relevance, has received relatively little scholarly attention, particularly with regard to verbal gender agreement in spoken varieties. Existing literature emphasizes the importance of morphosyntactic analyses to understand how gender interacts with tense, aspect, and verb forms (Johannessen, 2025; Raikhan et al., 2025). Overall, while it is evident that English and Haryanvi differ significantly in encoding gender, there is a lack of focused comparative research examining the morphosyntactic rules that govern these differences. This gap includes limited documentation of Haryanvi verbal gender marking, insufficient direct comparison with English, and a lack of analysis of dialectal and spoken variations. Moreover, while nominal gender agreement has been well-documented, the patterns and rules of verbal gender agreement in Haryanvi remain largely unexplored. Therefore, the present study addresses these gaps by providing a comparative morphosyntactic investigation of English and Haryanvi verbs, highlighting how gender is systematically encoded in verbal constructions and uncovering the unique features of Haryanvi.

Material and Methods

Research Design

The current study is theoretical and descriptive in nature because this method will help the researcher to remain unbiased and impartial while selecting sentences from the English and Haryanvi languages. The verbal gender agreement has been analyzed through Corbett's gender allocation system (2006), which has helped to gain an understanding and provide insights into a deeper understanding of the verbal gender agreement in English and Haryanvi languages.

Data Collection

The study always requires a particular set of data for the population, so that specific data can be selected for analysis. The researcher has collected the English data from books and past researches whereas the Haryanvi data has been collected through interviews from the native speakers of Haryanvi.

Data Analysis

The data of the current study have been compared and analyzed through a subjective understanding about gender allocation system.

Theoretical Framework

Corbett's gender allocation system is the basic theoretical framework that has been used for the purpose of this research. Corbett (2006) has mentioned, "Gender is a feature of special interest because it provides a dramatic demonstration of just how different

languages can be. For many of the *Indo-European* languages, it is an important feature that is realized in a high proportion of utterances” (p. 749). Corbett (2006) has examined the grammatical gender allocation system and has mentioned that gender is not only allocated to nouns, but also other gender markers are used for assigning gender in different languages in various ways.

. Gender agreement may occur in a wide range of languages. Corbett (1991: 105) has defined the importance of gender agreements for two reasons:

- Gender agreement is a way in which ‘gender is realized in language use’.
- Gender agreement helps to provide ‘the basis for defining gender and for establishing the number of genders in a given language’.

It may happen in various associated words such as adjectives, participles, demonstratives, verbs, relative pronouns, numerals, complementizers, possessives, definite and indefinite articles, adpositions, adverb etc. Corbett (1991: 110) has argued that in the *Russian* language, gender is allocated through a verb. He has illustrated the example:

1. žurnal ležal- \emptyset na stole ‘The magazine lay on the table’
2. Kinga ležal-a na stole ‘The book lay on the table.’
3. písmo lež-o na stole ‘The letter lay on the table.’

In these examples, ‘*ležal-*’ is the root word, which is used as a verb, and it shows gender by getting a different marker. The agreement marker \emptyset is used for masculine, *-a* is used for feminine, and *-o* is used for neuter.

Results and Discussion

Gender Agreement through Verbs in English

In English, verbs are not gendered. The same verb is used regardless of whether the subject is male (masculine), female (feminine), or non-binary. For instance,

4. He runs.
He-M runs
5. She runs.
She-FEM runs
6. They run.
they-M/FEM run

In the above-quoted examples, the subject ‘he’ is masculine and the verb is ‘runs’ and the subject ‘she’ is feminine and the verb is ‘runs’ whereas, the subject ‘they’ can be non-binary or plural therefore the verb slightly changes into ‘run’ due to the standard subject-verb agreement to the plural form but changing of form does not indicate gender.

Therefore, the main key point is that in the English language, verbs themselves do not carry gender related information. The verb ‘runs’ remains the same whether the subject is masculine (he), feminine (she), but in non-binary (they) remains ‘run’. However, gender

11. va: sbær t̪e: so: re:a: ja:
 he-M morning since has been sleeping-M
 'he has been sleeping since morning.'

12. va: sbær t̪e: so: ri: ja:
 she-FEM morning since has been sleeping-FEM
 'she has been sleeping since morning.'

In the present perfect continuance tense, the verb *kha: rja: ja:* 'is eating' is used to define the masculine, which agrees with the masculine subject *va: 'he'*. Furthermore, the verb *kʰa: ri:* 'is eating' defines the feminine gender of *va: 'she'* and shows gender agreement between subject and verb.

1.1.1. Gender Agreement through Past Forms of Verbs in Haryanvi.

Gender is defined in the past tense through verbs like

13. va: lo:ər gæa: t̪ʰa:
 he-M lahore went to-M
 'he went to Lahore.'

14. va: lo:ər gəi: t̪ʰi:
 she-FEM lahore went to-FEM
 'she went to lahore.'

In the past indefinite tense, gender is also assigned through *gæa: t̪ʰa:* 'went to', which refers to masculine gender and works as gender agreement with *va: 'he'* subject and *gæa: t̪ʰa:* 'went to' verb. Additionally, the verb *gəi: t̪ʰi:* 'went to' agrees with *va: 'she'* subject, which shows feminine gender.

15. va: ga:na: ga: ra: t̪ʰa:
 he-M song singing-M was-M
 'he was singing a song.'

16. va: ga:na: ga: ri: t̪ʰi:
 she-FEM song singing-FEM was-FEM
 'She was singing a song.'

In the given sentence, *va: 'he'* is a masculine pronoun, *ga: ra:* 'was singing' masculine verb, and *t̪ʰa:* 'was' is a masculine helping verb used to show gender agreement between the subject and verb. In the past continuous tense, gender is shown by *ga: ra: t̪ʰa:* 'was singing' to agree with *va: 'he'* means male. Similarly, the verb *ga: ri: t̪ʰi:* 'was singing' refers to the feminine gender by agreeing with *va: 'she'* means female.

17. va: xət̪ ləkʰ t̪ʰu: t̪ʰa:

he-M letter had written-M

'he had written a letter.'

18. va: xət ləkh tʃui: ʃhi:

she-FEM letter had written-FEM

'She had written a letter.'

In the past perfect tense, gender is assigned through the verb tʃua: ʃha: 'had done', which is used for masculine and defines the gender of va: 'he' means a male has written a letter. Furthermore, the verb tʃui: ʃhi: 'had done' assigns a feminine gender in the sentence and shows gender agreement with va: 'she' means female.

19. va: sbær ʃe: ka:m kər re:a: ʃa:

he-M morning since has been working-M

'he had been working since morning.'

20. va: sbær ʃe: ka:m kər re:i: ʃi:

she-FEM morning since has been working-FEM

'She had been working since morning.'

In the past perfect continuous tense, gender is defined by ka:m re:a: ʃa: 'has been working' for masculine and ka:m re:i: ʃi: 'has been working' for feminine; both the verbs define their gender according to the subject gender.

Gender Agreement through Future Forms of Verbs in Haryanvi

In the future tense, gender is also assigned through verbs like

21. va: a:ʃu: kha:va: ga:

he-M peach will eat-M

'he will eat a peach.'

22. va: a:ʃu: kha:va: gi:

she-FEM peach will eat-FEM

'She will eat a peach.'

In the future indefinite tense, gender is described through ga: 'he will', which is the only gender marker in the whole service from which masculine gender is defined, while the healpig vern gi: 'she will' is used to define feminine gender in the whole sentence.

In the future continuous tense, gender is also assigned through verbs such as

23. va: ka:m kər re:a: ho: ga:

He-M will be working-M

'he will be working.'

24. va: ka:m kər re:i ho: gi:

she-FEM will be working-FEM

'she will be working.'

In the future continuous tense, the verb *ka:m kər re:a ho: ga:* 'will be working' is the gender marker in which gender is defined with defines with *re:a* and *ga:* both show masculine gender and agree with the subjective pronoun *va:* 'he' while in (54) the gender is assigned through *r ka:m kər re:i ho: gi:* 'will be working' in which *re:i* and *gi:* both end with feminine identification letter '-i:' to define gender and make a gender agreement with the subject *va:* 'she' mean female.

In the future perfect tense, gender is also assigned through verbs. For instance

25. va: xət ləkh tʃu:a ho: ga:

he-M letter will have written-M

'he will have written a letter.'

26. va: xət ləkh tʃu:i ho: gi:

he-FEM letter will have written-FEM

'she will have written a letter.'

In the future perfect tense, the gender is assigned through *ləkh tʃu:a ho: ga:* 'will have been written' in which *tʃu:a* and *ga:* end with '-a:' used to define masculine gender in Haryanvi. In sentence (56) gender marker is *ləkh tʃu:i ho: gi:* 'will have been written' because the feminine gender identification '-i:' defines feminine gender.

In the future perfect continuous tense, gender is also assigned through verbs. For instance

27. va: kəl tʃe: kəʃa:b ləkh re:a ho: ga:

He-M yesterday, since the book will have been written by me

, he will have been writing since yesterday.'

28. va: kəl tʃe: kəʃa:b ləkh re:i ho: gi:

she-FEM yesterday since book will have been writing-FEM

'she will have been writing since yesterday.'

In the future perfect continuous tense, gender is assigned through *ləkh re:a ho: ga:* 'will have been writing'; the helping verb ends with '-a:', therefore masculine gender is defined, and *ləkh re:i ho: gi:* 'will have been writing' is used to define feminine gender.

Discussion

Gender Agreement through Verbs in English and Haryanvi

In English, verbs are not gendered. The same verb is used regardless of whether the subject is male (masculine), female (feminine), or non-binary. For instance, 'he runs.' 'she runs' and 'they run.' In these examples, the verb 'run' remains the same whether the subject is masculine, feminine, or non-binary.

Table 1
Gender Agreement through Verb in English

Subject	Subject	Gender Indicated?
He (masculine)	Runs	No
She (feminine)	Runs	No
They (non-binary/plural)	Run	No

In English, verbs do not change according to the gender of the subject. The form of the verb is influenced only by the number of the subject, such as singular or plural, but remains the same regardless of whether the subject is masculine, feminine, or non-binary. Gender distinctions in English are conveyed entirely through pronouns, such as *he*, *she*, and *they*, rather than through verbal morphology, reflecting the language's reliance on syntactic and semantic cues rather than gendered verb forms.

On the other hand, in the Haryanvi language, verbs are gendered; therefore, the form of the verb changes according to the gender of the subject. In Haryanvi, as in many other languages, gender is typically associated with nouns, where words are categorized as masculine or feminine. However, unlike languages where gender is mainly tied to nouns, in Haryanvi, gender can also be allocated through the verb used in a sentence. Verbs in Haryanvi are crucial components of sentences, denoting actions, occurrences, or states of being. They also convey tense (present, past, or future) and aspects (continuous, perfect, etc.). However, what distinguishes Haryanvi is the way gender can be expressed through the verb itself.

When forming sentences in Haryanvi, the form of the verb can change depending on the gender of the subject. This means that the verb conjugation varies based on whether the subject is masculine or feminine. This phenomenon is particularly evident in the agreement of verbs with their subjects in sentences.

In the Haryanvi language, gender is also defined through gender agreement. The verb is one of these agreements, which shows gender. The verb denotes any physical or mental action performed by a subject at any time present, past, or future. The basic distinction that is used in the Haryanvi language for defining gender is that '-a:' at the end of a verb shows masculine gender, while '-i:' at the end of a verb is used to define feminine gender.

1. Present continuous tense shows gender through verbs like kha: rja: ja: 'is eating' for masculine and kha: ri: ja: 'is eating' for feminine gender.
2. Present perfect tense also shows gender through verbs, so that the masculine verb is so: gæa: ja: 'has slept' and so: gæi: ja: 'has slept' define feminine gender.
3. Present perfect continuous tense allocates gender through verbs as well, like sbær ʒe: so: re:a: ja: 'has been sleeping' defines masculine gender and sbær ʒe: so: ri: ja: 'has been sleeping' allocates feminine gender.
4. Past indefinite tense also assigned gender through gæa: ʒha: 'went to', which is the masculine gender, while gæi: ʒhi: 'went to', which shows the feminine gender.
5. Past continuous tense, gender is shown by ga: ra: ʒha: 'was singing' for masculine and ga: ri: ʒhi: 'was singing' for feminine gender.

6. Past perfect tense assigned gender through *ləkh tʃuɑ: ʧɑ:* ‘had written’, which is used for masculine, and *ləkh tʃuɪ: ʧi:* ‘had written’ for feminine.
7. Past perfect continuous tense gender is defined by *sbær ʧe: kɑ:m kər re:ɑ: ʧɑ:* ‘had been working since morning’ for masculine and *sbær ʧe: kɑ:m kər re:i: ʧi:* ‘has been working since morning’ for feminine.
8. In the future indefinite tense, the gender is described through *gɑ:*, which is used for masculine, while *gi:* is used for feminine gender.
9. Future continuous tense, *kɑ:m kər re:ɑ: hɔ: gɑ:* ‘will be working’ defines masculine gender, while *kɑ:m kər re:i: hɔ: gi:* ‘will be working’ is used for feminine gender.
10. In the future perfect tense, *ləkh tʃuɑ: hɔ: gɑ:* ‘will have written’ is defined as masculine gender, and *ləkh tʃuɪ: hɔ: gi:* ‘will have written’ is used for feminine.
11. Future perfect continuous tense, gender is assigned through *ləkh re:ɑ: hɔ: gɑ:* ‘will have been writing’ and *ləkh re:i: hɔ: gi:* ‘will have been writing’ used to define masculine and feminine respectively.

Table 2
Gender Agreement through Verb in Haryanvi

Tenses	Verbs	Glose	Gender
Present Tense			
Present Indefinite Tense	<i>kha:va: ja:</i>	‘eats’	(=male/female rational)
Present Continuous Tense	<i>kha: rja: ja:</i>	‘is eating’	(=male rational)
	<i>kha: ri: ja:</i>	‘is eating’	(=female rational)
Present Perfect Tense	<i>so: gæɑ: ja:</i>	‘has slept’	(=male rational)
	<i>so: gøi: ja:</i>	‘has slept’	(=male rational)
Present Perfect Continuous Tense	<i>sbær ʧe: so: re:ɑ: ja:</i>	‘has been slept since morning’	(=male rational)
	<i>sbær ʧe: so: ri: ja:</i>	‘has been sleeping since morning’	(=female rational)
Past Tense			
Past Indefinite Tense	<i>gæɑ: ʧɑ:</i>	‘went to’	(=mal rational)
	<i>gøi: ʧi:</i>	‘went to’	(=female rational)
Past Continuous Tense	<i>gɑ: rɑ: ʧɑ:</i>	‘was singing’	(=male rational)
	<i>gɑ: ri: ʧi:</i>	‘was singing’	(=female rational)
Past Perfect Tense	<i>ləkh tʃuɑ: ʧɑ:</i>	‘had written’	(=male rational)
	<i>ləkh tʃuɪ: ʧi:</i>	‘had written’	(=female rational)
Past Perfect Continuous Tense	<i>sbær ʧe: kɑ:m kər re:ɑ: ʧɑ:</i>	‘had been working since morning’	(=male rational)
	<i>sbær ʧe: so: ri: ja:</i>	‘has been working since morning’	(=female rational)
Future Tense			
Future Indefinite Tense	<i>kha:va: ja:</i>	‘eats’	(=male/female rational)
Future Continuous Tense	<i>kha: rja: ja:</i>	‘is eating’	(=male rational)
	<i>kha: ri: ja:</i>	‘is eating’	(=female rational)
Future Perfect Tense	<i>ləkh tʃuɑ: ʧɑ:</i>	‘had written’	(=male rational)
	<i>so: gøi: ja:</i>	‘has slept’	(=female rational)
Future Perfect Continuous Tense	<i>sbær ʧe: so: re:ɑ: ja:</i>	‘has been slept since morning’	(=male rational)
	<i>sbær ʧe: so: ri: ja:</i>	‘has been sleeping since morning’	(=female rational)

To sum up, the analysis of English verbs shows that gender is not encoded through verbal forms. Verbs remain the same regardless of whether the subject is masculine, feminine, or non-binary, and gender distinctions are conveyed entirely through pronouns. This reflects the analytic nature of English, where syntactic and semantic context carry gender information rather than verb morphology. These findings underline the typological contrast with languages like Haryanvi, where verbs play an active role in marking gender,

highlighting how verbal morphology can serve as a central mechanism for expressing grammatical gender in certain languages.

Conclusion

This comparative morphosyntactic study has demonstrated a clear and systematic contrast between English and Haryanvi in terms of verbal gender agreement. The findings confirm that English verbs do not encode gender, as the same verbal form is used regardless of whether the subject is masculine, feminine, or non-binary. Gender distinctions in English are therefore expressed outside the verbal system, mainly through pronouns and contextual interpretation, reflecting the analytic nature of the language and its reliance on syntactic neutrality (Corbett, 2006; Curzan, 2003).

In contrast, Haryanvi exhibits a robust and rule-governed system of verbal gender agreement (Mustafa, 2020), where verbs actively encode the gender of the subject through morphological changes. Unlike languages in which gender is primarily associated with nouns, Haryanvi allows gender to be allocated and identified directly through verbal forms. The analysis across present, past, and future tenses—as well as continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous aspects—shows that gender marking is consistently realized through verb endings, with *-a:* indicating masculine gender and *-i:* indicating feminine gender. This agreement is evident in all major tense-aspect constructions, highlighting the central role of verbs in expressing grammatical gender in Haryanvi.

Overall, the study underscores fundamental typological differences between English and Haryanvi and illustrates how verbal morphology can function as a key grammatical site for gender expression. These findings contribute to broader discussions on gender agreement systems in natural languages and emphasize the importance of documenting and analyzing under-researched regional languages such as Haryanvi.

Recommendations

The study provides a detailed and comprehensive comparison regarding verbal gender agreement of Pakistani English and Haryanvi languages so future researchers may expand this work by adding more Indo-Aryan and Germanic languages to provide a big picture of typological compression based on verbal gender agreement. Moreover, research can be examined of various dialects of Haryanvi and other grammatical aspects. Haryanvi language digital corpora development would enhance empirical research and contribute to language documentation and preservation.

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